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AMERICAN Educational Monthly, AND NEW YORK TEACHER.

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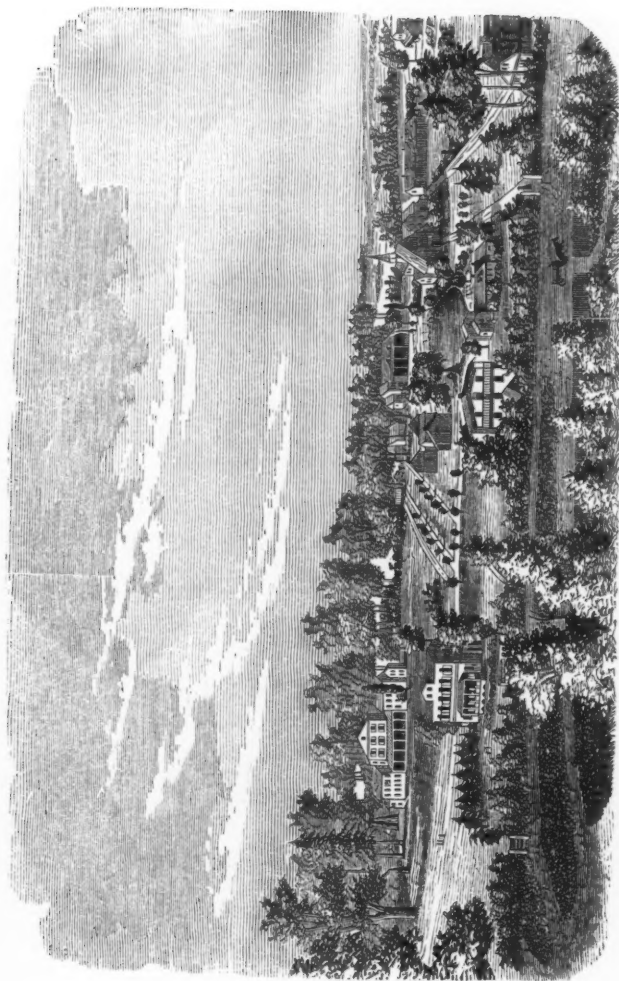
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THE RAUBE HAUS, HAMBURG.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

VOL. IV.

NOVEMBER, 1867.

No. 11.

FACTS AND THOUGHTS ABOUT REFORM SCHOOLS.

V.

THE congregated and family systems of reform school management have to some extent become rivals, and each has its zealous advocates among the ranks of managers and teachers. We will endeavor simply to notice the peculiarities of each, remarking freely upon their nature, yet not presuming to decide the question of their relative merit.

Examples of the congregated modes of training were mentioned in our last paper, in the cases of the New York and Philadelphia Houses of Refuge. We will now consider the instances where the family system combined with farm and garden schools, so beautifully carried out at the Rauhe Haus, Hamburg, has been adopted by some institutions of our own country. Of these the State Reform School at Lancaster, Ohio, the Reform School at Westboro', Mass., and the Girls' Industrial School at Lancaster, Mass., are perhaps the finest examples. The one in Ohio is founded upon a "Brotherhood," and New Jersey is modeling her new institution in pursuance of the same idea. The inmates are divided into families of fifty members, called brotherhoods, each presided over by two "Elder Brothers," who are constantly with their boys for instruction and example, and are subject to a "Chief Elder Brother," who presides over all. Except in the difference of employment afforded by the possession of a farm, a well classified congregated institution could not widely differ from this. In advantages for personal influence, it might be equal. Admirable as this school must be in many respects, it seems to lack one very important auxiliary, viz, female co-operation in the moral and intellectual departments. The strength of the family system must lie in this feature, and without it the "Brotherhood" must be considered deficient in a radical point. An "Elder Sister" would be a great addition to these households. An experienced, warm-hearted, motherly Christian lady should preside at each table, and have a general oversight of manners, personal appearance, and minor morals, with abundant opportunity for conversation. The school at Westboro' has recognized this need, and whenever practicable, has

employed female officers and teachers. They very justly argue that these boys, more than any others, need the refining and softening effect of of womanly society and instruction. Many of them have gone astray from never having known a mother's care, or an affectionate sister's trust. The influence of gentle, loving, sympathizing, yet strong-hearted, earnest women, cannot be over-estimated in all works of this kind.

The want of this element in the boys' department of the Philadelphia House also is noticeable. There should be a matron,—it does not matter for the *name*—but a judicious, affectionate, Christian lady, for each division of the boys, in addition to their present officers. The advocates of the family system have much of true wisdom in their reasoning. Character must be studied. The peculiar tendencies and deficiencies of each child must be noted and provided for. Children who have never had a home, especially need the order, decency and comfort of a family circle for their proper development. In fact, the *home* is the divinely appointed school for juvenile training, and it is naturally argued that a reformatory institution broken up into groups, each conducted as nearly as possible like an ordinary, laboring, Christian family, would best serve the purpose of its establishment.

Yet it would seem impossible to adapt the system to the needs of the crowded Houses of New York and Philadelphia. And when we add to their numbers the thousands of periled and guilty children in their streets who *should be* under control, it becomes hopeless to multiply family institutions to meet their wants.

There is comfort in the thought that, after all, the institution is itself only a means, not an end. The great work is to awaken the sluggish moral nature, to quicken the conscience, to fit the child to take care of himself among the temptations and duties of life. And as this is mainly secured by the influence of a strong, pure mind over a corrupted, weak and vacillating one, it follows that good officers, in an imperfect organization, may accomplish far more than careless, selfish ones in the best projected one. And it is undeniable, that with any reasonable opportunities for influence, the character of the instructors will determine the character of the House and its inmates. Systems may be determined upon, money expended, managers may visit, plan and consult, *all in vain*, if there be not intelligent, large-hearted co-operation on the part of the officers. If these are too narrow to understand, or too indifferent to adopt the spirit of the institution in its widest and highest sense, it is paralyzed, and finally buried under cold, shuffling forms. Instructors should not only be men and women of refinement and cultivation, of pleasing address, of varied natural and acquired powers, and of pure and elevated character; they must have power to *stamp individuality* upon their every act, and to develop it in others. They should understand the principles and details of the whole

work, and adapt every word and act to its advancement. The salaries paid by these institutions cannot purchase such qualifications, even were they estimable in currency. Those only who labor for the good of humanity will attain to them. *Three things* act as hindrances in many instances where the personal acquirements and mental characteristics would seem to promise usefulness; the want of faith in the work to be done, the want of power to inspire hope and kindle determination in the pupils, and the want of professional training for the work. The *faith* that "sees angels in the clouded faces and deformed spirits with which it deals" is here necessary; the faith that *knows* they can be redeemed, and works on in spite of all difficulty and discouragement. The *power* of character needed is an individual gift of nature, and independent of education. It gave success to "Papa John," to honest John Pounds, and to others. The want of *training* is one under which all young instructors must labor, for in America it can be gained nowhere but in the schools themselves, and by actual experience.—"Who is sufficient for these things?"

A missionary field is here open, second in importance to none in the world. It demands the unselfish devotion of an Edwards or a Judson, and the reward can only be expected from the Source to which they looked. And while the highest gifts and graces of intellect and spirit are needed in every department of this work, how peculiarly requisite they are in that devoted to the girls! By so much as their former surroundings were below, should their present ones be raised above the ordinary spirit of the world. An atmosphere of purity, love, and sweet consistency should pervade every room. Womanly sympathy, blended with the firmest principle, should be ever apparent. The tenderest solicitude, the gentlest forbearance, must be united with stern conviction of duty, and dignified enforcement of authority. What strength, yet sweetness of character, does all this demand! And in this work particularly, the most shining qualities fail, if there be not also Charity. If the heart do not overflow with *love*, the most gifted and wise will not win and save.

Who, indeed, is sufficient? Yet there are in this vineyard real, God-sent laborers, toiling on from year to year. Though often disappointed, deceived, betrayed, met by ingratitude and indifference, they say, in the words of the Apostle, "none of these things move me." No discouragement or difficulty can repress effort which springs from Heavenly bidding.

The public has much to learn in connection with schools of reform. It should realize that they are not places of punishment for past misdemeanors. A proper conception of their design and spirit would greatly aid in the accomplishment of their purposes. You, who by your money assist work, must remember that the institution does not claim to send out children "perfect in every good word and work," it only *begins* the reformation which it is for you to finish. Take these little ones by the hand, employ

them, trust them. The risk of giving confidence is infinitely less to you than the risk of your refusal to give it is to them. At the worst, there is the institution, in *loco parentis*, to which you may turn if baffled or betrayed. If these youths are to be saved, they must be able to go out with confidence into the world, relying on the kindness and protection of at least one home-circle, and not with hanging heads and crimson faces. You should let them feel *proud* of their foster-parent, but the false notions of its nature prevalent in society, lead them to feel that it extinguishes hope, and shuts the paths of life against them. How many promising children, whose feet were striving to walk firmly in the paths of truth and virtue, have been driven down to despair and moral death by the indifference, neglect, scorn and distrust, if not positive cruelty of those to whom the institution trusted their future, may never be known until the Day when all secrets are made manifest.

For, unfortunately for the moral safety and personal comfort of the children apprenticed from these schools, there are some among the people who apply for their services who are actuated solely by selfish motives. They go to an institution for servants, being unable from temper or parsimony to retain hired ones. They value them only for the amount of labor they can perform, and if disappointed in this, abuse follows. They have been known to examine them, unsatisfied with statements as to their health and soundness, or as a jockey does a horse. True, they may want also to know something of their moral character, but the inquiry seems to be prompted solely by a desire to protect themselves and property. No humane or philanthropic motives warmed their hearts; no noble desire to assist in rescuing the fallen, or saving priceless souls, ever swelled their breasts.

Thus there can be no doubt that some children who leave these institutions with a determination to pursue right courses, have, through improper examples, and harsh and brutal treatment, been driven into a fresh career of crime. The training of the institution is only preparatory, their moral character cannot be so perfectly attained as to render further precept or example unnecessary. It is, then, a matter of vital importance to the character, that those entrusted with their charge should be persons abundantly qualified to aid in the farther development of it. It matters not how long the children are kept in the school, or how well they may be prepared for indenture, if their new homes be not what they should be, there is great danger of undoing the work so faithfully begun.

For those whose hearts throb in unison with this great work, which is yet in its infancy, there is here an opportunity for aiding in it. They may become educators also, but the standard of qualification, so far as unselfishness, integrity and love are included, is no less high for them than for the instructor within the institution.

COMMON SENSE IN EDUCATION.

THE great educational revolution which is now advancing, quietly but surely, not only in our own country but in Germany and England, will receive a good impulse from Prof. Youman's last work*—a selection of eleven discourses, prepared by scientific gentlemen of England and America; most of the discourses presenting each the educational value of a particular science; others discussing at large the problem of education. Among the writers are Tyndall, Faraday, Whewell, Herbert Spencer, Barnard, Liebig, and the editor of the volume, Prof. E. L. Youmans.

Prof. Tyndall, amid much unnecessary explanation and illustration and frequent repetitions, but with liberal spirit, claims for the study of Physics that it is the most natural and general and the earliest of all studies; that it cultivates original induction and deduction, produces immediate mental pleasure, and therefore healthier mental tone; educates patience, perseverance, impartiality, practical foresight, and sympathy with the laboring millions, and furnishes materials for the fancy; also that its facts possess daily utility, and its immediate products promote directly the growth and comfort of society.

Mr. Henfrey advocates the rights of Botany, in a lecture admirably written, clearly and methodically thought but comparative and analytic (as might naturally be expected) far beyond the needs of his theme. He commends his study as exercising the observation more thoroughly than Physics, since its objects are more complex in parts and its forces more numerous and subtle; as exercising most eminently the inductive faculty in both the demonstrative and the tentative mode; as exercising perception of complex form, conception of classes, observation of processes, and, by its perfect nomenclature, cultivating the utmost accuracy in language.

In Zoology, Dr. Huxley presents a true method of investigation in natural science, rather than the disciplinary power of the study.

Dr. Paget, the champion of Physiology, after a prolix elaboration of its objects and processes and a defence of it against objections, some of which are not worth a sneer, claims that its uncertainty, constantly obvious to the student, produces intellectual caution, and tends to strengthen and balance the judgment; that its incompleteness, equally obvious, inspires him to original investigation; while at the same time, the study produces several important moral and religious results.

Prof. Faraday points out the general deficiency in the practical judgment, even on material objects, and the necessity of special education of this faculty. The educational means are, study of Natural Science, as its objects and processes are immediately available in life; and self-study

*THE CULTURE DEMANDED BY MODERN LIFE. A Series of Addresses and Arguments on the Claims of Scientific Education. By E. L. YOUMANS. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

with self-culture, through docility, impartiality, repression of prejudices, moral courage, thorough research, suspense of opinion, humility, freedom in scientific hypothesis. Judgment, like any other faculty, can be educated.

Dr. Whewell proves, with his usual admirable clearness and broad strength, what Geometry and Jurisprudence have done, as mere educational agents, for all the European nations; the truths of the former reminding men that certainty might exist in other sciences also; and its processes reminding them of their own ability to attain that certainty; and both thus stimulating to geometric and general research; the truths of Jurisprudence producing precision and logical method of thought and clearness of expression upon that subject, and a desire for these upon all other subjects. But, both of these being Deductive, they are deficient as educational agents. The Inductive sciences are, therefore, also necessary, in shaping our modern mind. Physical Astronomy, Botany, Anatomy, Geology, Chemistry, studied originally (not through books) and inductively, with a thorough knowledge of the History of Natural Science, would produce a broad receptivity, exactness and versatility of investigation and solidity of knowledge; and they would counteract the narrowing tendency of the technical, abstract, unpractical logic of our schools.

Dr. Hodgson demands the general recognition of Economic Science, by elaborate, interesting and strongly put proofs of the presence of law throughout its phenomena. He shows its daily, various, vital relations to the needs of society and of individuals; that it fosters good citizenship, enlightens philanthropy, encourages thrift, condemns selfish aggrandizement; that "common sense" in social life needs this scientific instruction. He does not analyze its powers as an educational, disciplinary agent.

Herbert Spencer shows the necessity of Political Science in political and legislative assemblies, and the utter inadequacy of our present system of school or university to make able legislators. A knowledge of dead words does not furnish understanding of living realities; the history of battles, intrigues and negotiations does not enlarge social philosophy; mathematics cannot solve the problems of politics. Ability to read does not make a good elector, for reading in wrong directions only deepens error. The science of politics and society itself must be taught.

President Barnard (of Columbia College) gives a most judicious, practical view, clear in its statements and strong in its logic, of the studies best adapted to early mental training. He esteems the ancient learning and languages; but condemns the common method of teaching them, as miserably meagre in results, as disproportionate to the pupil's unformed powers, as impairing those powers (except mere memory) by disuse, as preventing, meanwhile, the acquisition of useful knowledge, as disarranging the order of nature in her education of the mind. Two years of Latin,

after the pupil's fourteenth year, are as good as a dozen before it. Until then, the sciences of classification (botany, zoology, mineralogy) and those of observation and experiment (chemistry and physics) should be taught ; also, one or two of the modern languages, in the recent methods. These, with plane geometry, algebra to equations of the second degree, and the usual primary studies, should constitute the conditions of entrance to college. Greek should be left for the college course.

Prof. Liebig traces profoundly the subjective and objective growth of physical science, and considers its main and necessary causes and means of development to be, man's intellectual needs, general culture of society, a purely scientific class, practical inventions, political freedom, a degree of wealth.

In the editor's article on the Scientific Study of Human Nature, the psychologic method which separates spirit and body in discussion is condemned. They should be treated as one organism and a living reality. Their connection is elaborately shown ; the dependence of intellectual function on the quality, quantity and velocity of the blood, and hence on the physical constitution and habits of the individual. This study underlies every true system of education, whether of the young or of the feeble-minded and insane. Without a knowledge of it, the teacher is a quack. It would lift education from its present chaos of crudities into a true art, by enabling the educator to understand the needs and powers and limitations of each pupil. It would furnish large practical guidance to men in life, and would enlighten the student of moral, religious or æsthetic science. It demands, by every argument, admission into the course of modern liberal education.

The title itself of Prof. Youman's volume contains a tinge of partizanship. Very natural, however, is this, and a good popular expedient, when one is fighting a universal popular and scholastic error, and must therefore narrow his line of attack, or seem to do so, in order to penetrate the ranks of the Philistines. But though modern life doubtless demands a new culture, and just now seems to be demanding it pretty firmly, what if its demands are low and narrow ? Let us fall back on the universal and ultimate and permanent needs (not demands) of the man himself, modern or ancient, Saxon or Mongolian.

Man needs certain material objects for the preservation and comfort of his body ; also, certain spiritual objects, existing in other beings and in himself, for the health and contentment of his spirit. To acquire well these objects, he needs a knowledge of each one of them and of many or all of its related or connected objects. This knowledge presenting several kinds, and these kinds demanding different processes for their acquisition, man needs, first, exercise, and then, instruction, in each of these processes. Such exercise and instruction, we may call Education.

Now, what are these several processes? They are exertions of the one central will in procuring ideas of material objects through the several senses; in getting knowledge of the relations and connections of those objects; in making those ideas and that knowledge, together with the other mental phenomena, to become ultimate objects of consciousness; in discovering the relations and connections of these last-mentioned objects of consciousness.

Again, in order to practical efficiency, these processes must take one or both of two modes. 1st. One object being given, the will must ascertain all the objects related or connected with it. 2nd. Two or more objects being given, the will must ascertain all their relations and connections with each other.

Also, these processes must be conducted in a certain order; seeking first the absolute quality and quantity of the given main object; then the objects which cohere, are concrete, with it; then those which it affects; then those by which it is affected; after these, objects holding relations of position, of time, etc., with the main object. All this constitutes Observation.

But many an object of desire does not (from its nature, position, etc.,) permit any of the above-mentioned processes to be performed upon its identical self, or at least upon the objects immediately related or connected with it. Now, every object in nature has some other object like itself; and the objects related or connected with one of these are like those related or connected with the other. Hence, knowledge already existing of the similar object and its own related objects, there arises another process—that of recalling methodically, as above, this past knowledge, and of appropriating it to the main object in hand. This process of recollection and imagination (appropriation) constitutes Reflection.

Now, how make the will and intellect efficient in these processes? This is the true problem of Education.

In the first place, the pupil should be put, whenever it is practicable, into immediate contact with the real, and if at all convenient, the natural object itself, and be required to perform upon it these processes in their order.

Objects of Zoology (the smaller specimens are quite serviceable); Botanical objects; Minerals; the Astronomical bodies; statuettes, busts, etc.; should be first observed. Here the daily recurring problem is—one characteristic in one object being pointed out, to find the traits, material and spiritual, which cohere, are concrete, with it in that individual; then to find the like characteristic in each remaining individual, and the traits which cohere with itself; thence to find among all these traits the certain ones which cohere always with the main characteristic. Thus, as to varieties, species, etc., in their order. The characteristics selected by

the educator should, of course, be such as unfold the whole subject gradually and scientifically ; the technical names should be given to the pupil only after he has discovered the thing ; text-books are used only as a methodical retrospect, and enlargement of the knowledge already gained ; the only books at hand during the studies indicated are the pupil's own written notes.

This course would develop the fore-running power of Analysis, the power of discovering Likeness and Difference, and that of discovering the Concretal connexions—all the powers included under Classification ; and what is immensely important, it would educate them into the identical methods necessary in practical life.

Forms, geometric and artistic, their kinds and proportions, will exercise farther the Comparative faculty. The relations of number, attainable by the simple arithmetical and algebraic processes, but always pursued by reasons rather than rules, must occupy a portion of this earlier course, as necessary but secondary. Sounds must be studied ; also, odors, by those pupils in whom the sense of smell is defective.

The objects and sequences of Chemistry and Mechanics, and of other physical departments, presented to the pupil (without text-book), in experiments of gradually increasing complexity, would educate again the powers just mentioned, and mainly the faculty for apprehending Effects and Causes. In each exercise, only one main object must occupy the attention ; and at first, only the objects connected with it concretally, and those connected as Effects. These two groups must be observed together. They are practically the main object itself. Then, the same main objects may be presented, with their objects connected as Causes, (and Means, Conditions, etc.), both for and against. Of course, the tests of all these connexions, the Logical Criteria, will be made prominent to the pupil's observation. Also, the Tentative experiments, which the pupil must be encouraged to suggest, will awake the Constructive Imagination.

The process of Reflection, as described above (the methodic recalling of all objects like the main one, with their respective connexions, as observed in previous exercises), is practicable by quite young minds, and should be required regularly as the sequel of every exercise in Observation. If to-day, oxygen being the subject, three of its effects have been discovered, the Effects presented in previous experiments must be recalled and associated firmly with the three.

As early as the sixteenth year, these processes, in their order, can be directed with surprising success to certain of the objects of the pupil's own consciousness ; and the Reflective process (as analyzed above) will attain many of the same phenomena presented in other souls. This last is the only department of a true education (precisely so called), in which books hold right to existence ; its books being dramas especially,

and indeed any books whatever, wise or foolish ; in fact, imperatively one book in every psychologic kind, normal and abnormal. Still, even here the living, concrete object is desirable for observation ; the actual conversation of companions or a dialogue between the educator and one pupil, directed, like a chemical experiment, for the observation of the class.

Under the inquiry into the Effects of an object, in the latter portion of the course, there is one group of effects which must always be considered, namely, the several ultimate objects of human need, of pleasure and pain, the motive objects of human nature. These being discovered by the pupil or (when beyond his reach) made known to him, each main object of inquiry must be studied in its bearings upon them all. This act is the Practical Judgment itself.

Themes for general discussion, ratiocination and proof, upon objects outside the course, enter largely into such a plan of education. Here, the art of Rhetoric may be presented ; evolved, in harmony with the rest of the system, by the pupils' and teacher's criticisms, from the essays themselves and the best literature.

This general plan of education will be aided in some of its aims by books. Its methods would be impressed and confirmed by the thorough study and recitation of systematic works, especially if arranged in the order indicated. However, as suggested, the use of any special book should only follow the pupil's original observation and reflection in its department, and be constantly and jealously compared with this last, so far as practicable.

This scheme, besides storing the pupil's mind with many of the identical facts which he will need in life, secures to his will a control over the direct, original processes to knowledge, creates an intellectual need of the truly vital relations and connexions of thought, and of the true order in these, and establishes this order in the spontaneous reappearance of the thoughts. It will make the man (his nature consenting) able to raise a crop or choose a horse, to mould a pupil, a jury, a congregation or his own being, as well as produce an essay or a science. Its special merit is that it develops the practical intellect rather than the abstractive ; for by the former is meant that which achieves all the ends of our life, our spiritual perfection, and (as Bacon says) "the glory of the Creator" as well as "the relief of man's estate." The mere scientist should be rare, only little less so than the poet ; and it is not the legitimate aim of Education to create him, however she may welcome and aid him when he comes. That aim is not, as it would really seem to be conceived, the development of the mere thought-digger, the mental acrobat, but the total man full of the heavenly and the worldly wisdom. And this is the conclusion of the whole educational matter.

It is needless to say that practical difficulties meet this scheme. Speci-

mens and apparatus must be gathered ; a new race of educators must be trained ; the public appreciation and compensation of the educator's work must be enlarged ; the public and the pedagogic prejudices must be stroked away or exploded. When the teachers' convention stands twiddling a rattan between its fingers for a day, and maundering over the *a posteriori* relations of the instrument ; when parties ask only whether Oxford or Cambridge does the better work, and not whether nature may surpass both, who is sufficient for these things ?

However, the Kindergarten and the Object-school are making fair progress. Among the old appliances, while a limited amount of mathematics is profitable, the languages, especially the highly-organized ones—the German, the Latin and the Greek—if taught on a different method (and the two latter at a later age) form a partial substitute for the true education ; indeed should be moderately incorporated into it ; for words are not only signs but things. This true method would be strictly inductive and analytic, from the alphabet to the last syntactic form ; and the study of the sentence should invariably begin with analysis of the subjective noun and its meaning ; then should trace their effects in the other words ; then their causes (etymologic, psychologic, national, geographic, &c.). The irregular orthography of the French affords excellent exercise in analysis and synthesis of the visible forms of things, as also does its structure in tracing effects and causes. The sentences and passages, the “natural specimens,” which are the materials for the pupil's observation and reflection, should present a gradually increasing complexity, and embody all the laws ; then, in the German and French, and somewhat in the Latin, the processes of Deduction (accompanied by the grammatical text-book) may be profitably carried on, by conversations and compositions, till practical efficiency is secured.

CHEMISTRY OF THE PRIMEVAL EARTH.*

I.

THE natural history of our planet, to which we give the name of geology, is, necessarily, a very complex science, including as it does the concrete sciences of mineralogy, or botany, and zoology, and the abstract sciences of chemistry and physics. These latter sustain a necessary and very important relation to the whole process of development of our earth from its earliest ages, and we find that the same chemical laws which have presided over its changes, apply also to those of extraterrestrial matter. Recent investigations show the presence in the sun, and even in the fixed

* By T. STERRY HUNT, M. A., F. R. S. Read before the British Royal Institution, and revised by the Author for the *Chemical News*.

stars—suns of other systems—of the same chemical elements as in our own planet. The spectroscope, that marvellous instrument, has, in the hands of modern investigators, thrown new light upon the composition of the farthest bodies of the universe, and has made clear many points which the telescope was impotent to resolve. The results of extraterrestrial spectroscopic research have lately been set forth in an admirable manner by one of its most successful students, Dr. Higgins. We see by its aid matter in all its stages, and trace the process of condensation and the formation of worlds. It is long since Herschel, the first of his illustrious name, conceived the nebulae, which his telescope could not resolve, to be the uncondensed matter from which worlds are made. Subsequent astronomers, with more powerful glasses, have been able to show that many of these nebulae are really groups of stars, and thus a doubt was thrown over the existence in space of nebulous luminous matter; but the spectroscope has now placed the matter beyond doubt. We thus find in the heavens planets, bodies like our earth, shining only by reflected light; suns, self-luminous, radiating light from solid matter; and, moreover, true nebulae, or masses of luminous gaseous matter. These three forms represent three distinct phases in the condensation of the primeval matter, from which our own and other planetary systems have been formed.

This nebulous matter is conceived to be so intensely heated as to be in the state of true gas or vapor, and, for this reason, feebly luminous when compared with the sun. It would be out of place, on the present occasion, to discuss the detailed results of spectroscopic investigation, or the beautiful and ingenious methods by which modern science has shown the existence in the sun, and in many other luminous bodies in space, of the same chemical elements that are found in our earth, and even in our own bodies; realizing, in a most literal manner, the genial intuition of the poet who—

Sees alike in stars and flowers a part
Of the self-same universal being
That is throbbing in his mind and heart."

Calculations based on the amount of light and heat radiated from the sun show that the temperature which reigns at its surface is so great that we can hardly form an adequate idea of it. Of the chemical relations of such intensely heated matter modern chemistry has made known to us some curious facts, which help to throw light on the constitution and luminosity of the sun. Heat, under ordinary conditions, is favorable to chemical combination, but a higher temperature reverses all affinities. Thus, the so-called noble metals, gold, silver, mercury, etc., unite with oxygen and other elements; but these compounds are decomposed by heat, and the pure metals are regenerated. A similar reaction was many years since shown by Mr. Groove, with regard to water, whose elements—oxygen and hydrogen—when mingled and kindled by flame, or by the electric

spark, unite to form water, which, however, at a much higher temperature, is again resolved into its component gases. Hence, if we had these two gases existing in admixture at a very high temperature, cold would actually effect their combination precisely as heat would do if the mixed gases were at the ordinary temperature, and literally it would be found that "frost performs the effect of fire." The recent researches of Henry Ste.-Claire Deville and others go far to show that this breaking up of compounds, or dissociation of elements by intense heat, is a principle of universal application; so that we may suppose that all the elements, which make up the sun or our planet, would, when so intensely heated as to be in that gaseous condition which all matter is capable of assuming, uncombined—that is to say, would exist together in the condition of what we call chemical elements, whose further dissociation in stellar or nebulous masses may even give us evidence of matter still more elemental than that revealed by the experiments of the laboratory, where we can only conjecture the compound nature of many of the so-called elementary substances.

The sun, then, is to be conceived as an immense mass of intensely heated gaseous and dissociated matter, so condensed, however, that, notwithstanding its excessive temperature, it has a specific gravity not much below that of water, probably offering a condition analogous to that which Cagniard de la Tour observed for volatile bodies when submitted to great pressure at temperatures much above their boiling point. The radiation of heat going on from the surface of such an intensely heated mass of uncombined gases, will produce a superficial cooling, which will permit the combination of certain elements and the production of solid or liquid particles, which, suspended in the still dissociated vapors, become intensely luminous and form the solar photosphere. The condensed particles, carried down into the intensely heated mass again meet with a heat of dissociation, so that the process of combination at the surface is incessantly renewed, while the heat of the sun may be supposed to be maintained by the slow condensation of its mass; a diminution by 1-1000th of its present diameter being sufficient, according to Helmholtz, to maintain the present supply of heat for 21,000 years.

This hypothesis of the nature of the sun and of the luminous process going on at its surface, is the one lately put forward by Faye, and although it has met with opposition, appears to be the one which accords best with our present knowledge of the chemical and physical conditions of matter, such as we must suppose it to exist in the condensing gaseous mass, which, according to the nebular hypothesis, should form the centre of our solar system. Taking this, as we have already done, for granted, it matters little whether we imagine the different planets to have been successfully detached as rings during the rotation of the principal mass, as is generally conceived, or whether we admit with Chacornac a process of aggregation,

or concretion, operating within the primal nebular mass, resulting in the production of sun and planets. In either case we come to the conclusion that our earth must at one time have been in an intensely heated gaseous condition, such as the sun now presents, self-luminous, and with a process of condensation going on at first at the surface only, until by cooling it must have reached the point where the gaseous centre was exchanged for one of combined and liquefied matter.

Here commences the chemistry of the earth, to the discussion of which the foregoing considerations have been only preliminary. So long as the gaseous condition of the earth lasted, we may suppose the whole mass to have been homogeneous; but when the temperature became so reduced that the existence of chemical compounds at the centre became possible, those which were most stable at the elevated temperature then prevailing would be first formed. Thus, for example, while compounds of oxygen with mercury, or even with hydrogen, could not exist, oxides of silicon, aluminum, calcium, magnesium, and iron might be formed and condense in a liquid form at the centre of the globe. By progressive cooling, still other elements would be removed from the gaseous mass, which would now become the atmosphere of the non-gaseous nucleus. We may suppose an arrangement of the condensed matters at the centre according to their respective specific gravities, and thus the fact that the density of the earth as a whole is about twice the mean density of the matters which form its solid surface. Metallic or metalloidal compounds of elements grouped differently from any compounds known to us, and far more dense, may exist in the centre of the earth.

The process of combination and cooling having gone on, until those elements which are not volatile in the heat of our ordinary furnaces were condensed into a liquid form, we may here inquire what would be the result, upon the mass, of a further reduction of temperature. It is generally assumed that in the cooling of a liquid globe of mineral matter, congelation would commence at the surface, as in the case of water; but water offers an exception to most other liquids, inasmuch as it is denser in the liquid than in the solid form. Hence ice floats on water, and freezing water becomes covered with a layer of ice, which protects the liquid below. With most other matters, however, and notably with the various mineral and earthy compounds analogous to those which may be supposed to have formed the fiery-fluid earth, numerous and careful experiments show that the products of solidification are much denser than the liquid mass; so that solidification would have commenced at the centre, whose temperature would thus be the congealing point of these liquid compounds. The important researches of Hopkins and Fairbairn on the influence of pressure in augmenting the melting-point of such compounds as contract in solidifying, are to be considered in this connection.

It is with the superficial portions of the fused mineral mass of the globe that we have now to do, since there is no good reason for supposing that the deeply-seated portions have intervened in any direct manner in the production of the rocks which form the superficial crust. This, at the time of its first solidification, presented probably an irregular, diversified surface, from the result of contraction of the congealing mass, which at last formed a liquid bath of no great depth, surrounding the solid nucleus. It is to the composition of this crust that we must now direct our attention, since therein would be found all the elements (with the exception of such as were still in the gaseous form) now met with in the known rocks of the earth. This crust is now everywhere buried beneath its own ruins, and we can only, from chemical considerations, attempt to reconstruct it. If we consider the conditions through which it has passed, and the chemical affinities which must have come into play, we shall see that they are just what would now result if the solid land, sea, and air, were made to react upon each other under the influence of intense heat. To the chemist it is at once evident that from this would result the conversion of all carbonates, chlorides, and sulphates into silicates, and the separation of the carbon, chlorine, and sulphur in the form of acid gases, which, with nitrogen, watery vapor, and the probable excess of oxygen, would form the dense primeval atmosphere. The resulting fused mass would contain all the bases as silicates, and must have much resembled in composition certain furnace slags, or volcanic glasses. The atmosphere, charged with acid gases which surrounded this primitive rock, must have been of immense density. Under the pressure of such a high barometric column, condensation would take place at a temperature much above the present boiling-point of water, and the depressed portions of the half-cooled crust would be flooded with a highly heated solution of hydrochloric acid, whose action in decomposing the silicates is easily intelligible to the chemist. The formation of chlorides of the various bases, and the separation of silica, would go on until the affinities of the acid were satisfied, and there would be a separation of silica taking the form of quartz, and the production of a seawater holding in solution, besides the chlorides of sodium, calcium, and magnesium, salts of aluminum and other metallic bases. The atmosphere being thus deprived of its volatile chlorine and sulphur compounds, would approximate to that of our own time, but differ in its greater amount of carbonic acid.

It is pleasant to see refinement penetrating into retired homes. The more piano the less wolf, the less dirt. The beautiful should never be out of thought. It is as right that the bread should be put upon the table in a comely shape as that it should be eaten.

THE INVOLUNTARY INFLUENCE OF THE TEACHER
OVER HIS SCHOLARS.

DURING a large proportion of his active hours, the pupil is in the presence of one whose social position, strength of character, superior abilities, and momentary discipline, render him an object of the utmost attention and interest. He cannot raise his eye without observing him, and when his eye is not raised, he is, involuntarily, powerfully impressed by his presence and pervading spirit. Every act and habit of the instructor is swelled into importance as associated with his position. The tide of his emotions and thoughts and habits flows back upon these expanding capacities, filling them, and leaving its deposits there, as the tide wave of the ocean urges its way into all the bays and indentations of the coast and leaves its marks upon the yielding shores. There is a peculiar responsibility resting upon the teacher in this respect. He has assumed, in virtue of his office, the relation of parent to all his school, during the hours they remain in his presence, and the parents have a right to claim at his hand an honest fulfillment of all the duties of the relation, as far as it rests within his power. All the wholesome, and courteous, and generous, and noble, and Christian impressions of home, may be distorted or effaced by the more powerful and continually repeated impressions of the school-room; or the lack of these in the families of the ignorant and vicious may be largely compensated by the more healthful atmosphere of the child's daily home for six hours. A most onerous and exacting relation is this. Its worldly rewards are small, yet its claims cannot be avoided without fearful retributions. The teacher receives not the pecuniary return of some forms of mechanical labor. He never could be paid, in money, for the severe self-discipline, daily anxiety, and mental earnestness, absolutely demanded in addition to the heavy routine tasks in the school, and yet the conscientious teacher can never escape these claims upon him. His rewards must be expected from the benedictions of his own heart, and from the decisions of a higher tribunal. "It is worthy of special observation," says a late writer, "that those professions which are most intimately concerned with the highest interests of the race are, more than others, remote from the operations of ordinary worldly motives, and, to a greater extent, left to the power of conscientious and religious considerations. The man who has nothing to bring to the duties of a teacher but so much work for so much pay, and who retires satisfied when the mechanical functions of his office are performed, may be pronounced wholly unfit for the responsibilities of a profession which acts upon mind. He might become a respectable artisan or laborer, but not a teacher of youth. He is not fit to be trusted with the culture of intellect. He does not sympathize with its wants or destinies. Whoever rightly comprehends

these will shrink from the responsibility of the teacher's profession, or he will labor to satisfy them with all the solicitude that a sense of personal and religious obligation can inspire. He will habituate himself to reflect that he is engaged in making impressions that must remain ineffaceable—that he is giving to mind such developments and tendencies as it shall bear with it through eternity—that no other man can correct *his* mistakes, or supply his deficiencies, or atone for his faults. What he does must remain forever essentially unchanged; what he neglects to do will remain undone."

The general temper and spirit of the master becomes the prevailing spirit of the school. An observer cannot but be struck with the marked differences exhibited in different schools, giving a distinct and easily recognized character to each. Of the celebrated Rugby School in England, one of its pupils remarked: "Whatever peculiarity of character was impressed on the scholars whom it sent forth was derived, not from the genius of the place, but from the genius of the master. Throughout, whether in the school itself or in its after effects, the one image that we have before us is not Rugby but Arnold." If the master is easy and nerveless in his habit, the school will be dull and indolent; if he is cool and phlegmatic, the atmosphere of the school will be frigid and cheerless; if he is warm and affectionate, it will be genial and wholesome; if the master is of a bustling and noisy temper, whatever may be the discipline of the school, the pupils will be infected by it, and exhibit its effects out of doors, even if it is repressed within the school walls. If there is a roughness and want of refinement in the teacher's address, all his awkward and ungraceful phrases and manners, greatly exaggerated, will reappear in the conversation and intercourse of the scholars. The example of the teacher will be a thousand-fold more potent than his precepts. He may attempt to chasten the rudeness of his pupils, and point out the importance and beauty of a refinement of manners, of a chaste and pure speech, of a gentlemanly and courteous behavior; but if, in his personal manners, he lacks these graces—if he speaks roughly, and merely nods his recognition as he meets his pupils, and is careless of his movements when before them—the powerful undertow of his example will sweep away from the memories of the children the unillustrated precepts of his lips.

How powerful and permanent will be these impressions, and what an almost irresistible influence will they have over the lives of the youth now sitting under their instructions! By the character of his discipline, thorough and rigid though it be, but conducted on low, cunning, and often mean principles, the teacher may, unintentionally indeed, but none the less effectually, blunt the moral sensibilities, and blight all noble, magnanimous and generous impulses, uproot virtuous and honest principles, and implant deception and treachery. And the converse of this will be true, with the

individual exceptions to be found in all schools of any number, not affecting the force of the argument, but illustrating the perversity of human nature. By a native and cultivated nobleness of manner on the part of the teacher, by continued appeals to such traits of character, and by conducting the daily discipline upon the presumption manifest to all the keen-eyed and quickly-impressed youths of the school, that they are ingenuous and truthful, these noble and ennobling virtues may be developed into maturity and into self-determining power. To secure this result, says the biographer of the model teacher to whom we have already alluded, "arose Mr. Arnold's practice, in which his own delicacy of feeling and uprightness of purpose powerfully assisted him, of treating the boys as gentlemen and reasonable beings, of making them respect themselves by the mere respect he showed to them, of showing that he appealed and trusted to their own common sense and conscience. Lying, for example, he made a great moral offense, placing implicit confidence in a boy's assertion, and then, if a falsehood was discovered, punishing it severely. He never seemed to be on the watch for boys, as if distrusting them, but always checked any attempt at further proof of an assertion. 'If you say so,' he would say, 'that is quite enough—*of course* I believe your word,' and there grew up in consequence a general feeling that 'it was a shame to tell Arnold a lie—he always believed one.'"

A punishment may be so administered as to appear to the child to be the personal revenge of the teacher, for the personal insult he seems to have received from his misconduct. It may appear to be the triumphant assertion of the master's unlimited power, and of the boy's utter defenselessness, begetting within him a sentiment of anger against the teacher, and of hatred towards the school; destroying his self-respect and quenching all ambition to improve his mind and habits. Or it may be so administered as to appear only the established and necessary penalty of a wholesome requirement, upon which he has made a voluntary breach—a matter of no small grief to the teacher, and awakening within his heart a pang of sorrow vastly more acute than the physical pain experienced from the punishment, and an inward determination never to bring upon himself a similar condemnation. The one is merely penal and painful, the other is disciplinary and corrective.

The teacher's heart should be the home of all noble and generous sentiments, that they may fall spontaneously from his lips, on all proper occasions. And these occasions will not be wanting. In the daily reading, in the historical and geographical recitations, in allusions to current events, high, and noble, and patriotic, and humane opinions, falling from his mouth, will become the seeds of thoughts and of future acts in the hearts and lives of the susceptible listeners before him.

There are some classes of scholars that will be more seriously affected

than others by the bearing of the teacher towards them. In every school there will be found children of a peculiarly delicate mental and physical organization, sensitive to a weakness, lacking confidence in themselves, and yet earnestly craving, and actually requiring, for the full development of their capabilities, the manifest approbation of others. These minds may be encouraged, strengthened, and educated for high and important duties and offices in manly life, or they may be crushed and blighted, and sent out into the world with an uncorrected, morbid distrust of themselves, suspicious of their fellows, preying upon themselves, and experiencing a living purgatory. The teacher who cannot discern these temperaments has certainly not enough knowledge of human nature, or an adequate measure of common sense, to meet the requirements of his office. He may not bear himself carelessly or roughly before these minds; their very weakness, and delicacy, and promise, beseechingly appeal to his manhood, and also to his responsibility to the Giver of this peculiarly susceptible organism. The same discipline that would be indispensable when applied to a phlegmatic boy would be the ruin of these. It is not the rod on the back, or the blister on the conscience, that they need, but the encouragement of a kindly recognition and appreciation of their endeavors, and a hopeful prophecy of their future success. There are griefs in a school-room as rending in their agony to the heart-strings of the little sufferers as the sorrows that assail our maturer lives. The sensitive child startled from his usual wits by the asperities of his teacher, misunderstood in his best endeavors, doubted in his honest asseverations, discouraged by the most persistent prophecies of his utter failure as a scholar, scolds his already burning face with as hot a tear as that eye will ever shed again, and heaves his heart with as heavy a throb, in its measure, as will ever stir his bosom. Few sensitive men look back to their school-boy days without an involuntary shudder at the recollection of some such scene as this. We may not despise or offend these shrinking little ones; they have a high mission upon the earth, and in the skies, if properly developed. They are Eolian harps, and from their delicate and silvery chords the hand of God will hereafter sweep wonderful harmonies.

There is another class situated at almost the opposite pole from these. Its members are the dull and stupid pupils of the school. The slowness of their mental movements is distressing; all their advances are by short and painful steps. Almost *everything* in their case depends upon the bearing and patience of the teacher towards them. The bright boys would advance almost without aid; they are the pride of the school-room; they are continually commended. But these dull boys labor harder than they; their struggles are more incessant; it is their misfortune, not their fault, that they are so much in the rear of their bright competitors. How much do they need the most hopeful and kindly encouragements, and

how fatal must be the forbidding coldness and the impatient discouragements of the inexperienced, thoughtless, or heartless teacher?

By no means too strong is the language of a late writer upon this point: "The less gifted, the tardier mind, the timid, the thoughtless, and even the indolent youth has claims upon the teacher not less sacred; and the untiring zeal, and patient, conscientious fidelity with which he applies himself to the self-denying work of developing *such* minds, in so far as they are susceptible of improvement, and of *doing his best* with every individual committed to his instructions, constitute the highest test of excellency in his vocation. Whoever is above or below this toilsome detail—whoever does not think *any sane mind*, made immortal by its God, worthy to engage his solicitude and his labors—has no special calling to the work of a teacher. He may win a reputation by his success with apt, ambitious pupils, but his negligence, impatience, contempt for others, who are also to be trained for eternity, intellectually as well as morally, and the scantiness of whose resources the more urgently demands a painstaking culture, are offenses against humanity and morality which it would not be easy to characterize by epithets too strong." Arnold once out of patience from the peculiar dullness of such a boy as this, addressed him quite sharply, when the pupil looked up in his face and said: "Why do you speak angrily, sir? Indeed I am doing the best that I can." Years afterwards he used to tell the story to his children, and say: "I never felt so much ashamed in my life; that look and that speech I have never forgotten."

GRAMMATICAL NOTES.

IV.—THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

IN our last paper, we dwelt at length on the form for the possessive of nouns in general. We propose now to add a few words respecting the form for the possessive of abbreviations, and of compound nouns and pronominal phrases; and to explain the use and government of what are sometimes, though improperly, called "double possessives."

1. The only remark that need be offered in regard to the possessive form of abbreviations is, that care should be had to give the abbreviation its correct form, then follow the rule given in our last number. "A *mo.*'s [not *mo's*] wages." "Three *mos.*' [not *mos'*, or *mo.'s*, or *mo's*] interest." "I bought 75 *cts.*' worth." "The *Dr.*'s mode of writing." "Have you seen *H.*'s [not *H's*] card." In such expressions as "*A.*'s money was three times as much as *B.'s*;" "*Tom.*'s schemes," etc.; *A.*, *B.*, *Tom.*, are not properly abbreviations or contracted forms pronounced more fully than they are spelled. Hence they require no period before the sign of the possessive.

Where figures, in connection with the symbol for dollars, pounds, etc., are used instead of words, we are inclined to think that not merely the apostrophe, but the additional *s*, should also be used; as, "We sold \$500's [not \$500, nor yet \$500'] worth of goods yesterday." It is true, no sound of an additional *s* is heard; and yet the apostrophe without the additional *s* gives the expression the appearance of a contraction, as in *tho'* for *though*. If we appeal to the common practice of writers and printers, we shall find that generally both apostrophe and *s* are omitted; as on p. 169 of Cruttenden's *Sent. Lang.*, Pt. II., "*A* sells *B* \$500 worth of goods." This, however, is obviously wrong. It corresponds to "talking about a man's writings being light."

2. Compound nouns, or pronominal phrases. These we may embrace in the four following lists; for names like *James Smith*, *William H. Harrison*, we consider as a single word. The general rule in regard to the place of the possessive sign in pronominal combinations is, that it be annexed to the last word of the combination. Examples:—

a. When the meaning of the leading noun is completed or modified by a subjoined *adjective phrase*, whether with or without hyphens. "*His son-in-law's* house."—*Shak.* "*The ruler of the synagogue's* house."—*Luke* viii. 49. "*The Duke of Gloucester's* establishment."—*Macaulay.* This is no modern device, but is as old as the language itself. "*The Wif of Bathes Tale.*"—*Chaucer.*

b. When the noun is qualified by a subjoined *adjective*, whether with or without hyphens. "*A knight-errant's* word." "*The court-martial's* decisions." "*James I.'s* habit of cursing."—*Notes and Queries.* "*My life is like Harry the Fourth's.*"—*N. A. Rev.* "*Charles the Second's* time."—*Irving.* This is in accordance with the analogy of the language; for while we say "*Harry the Fourth's* life," not "*Harry's* the Fourth life," we also say "twenty-ninth," not "twentieth-nine." This shows us the impropriety of saying "any one's *else* opinions," or "any body's *else* house." This form, besides being contrary to analogy, naturally implies that *else* qualifies the word that follows it instead of the one that precedes it. It is an error into which some persons ignorantly fall, in an over-endeavor to be correct. They lose sight of the fact, that *else*, as an adjective, always follows its noun or pronoun, and, with it, forms a pronominal combination, which is analogically written with the *'s* on the end, and correspondingly pronounced. We append a few examples of the correct use of this combination. "*The war is not carried on for his or any body else's* glory."—*Ev. Post.* "*It is seldom you need to depend on any body else's* tongue."—*N. Y. Obs.* "*He has not even the sense to invent a tune for himself, but takes somebody else's.*"—*Punch*, in *Liv. Age.* "*Nobody* cared whether his tax harmonized with *any body else's* tax or not."—*Nation.*

c. When the leading noun is qualified by a noun in opposition with it.

"*John the Baptist's* head." "*His wife Xanthippe's* temper." "In *Edward the Confessor's* time."—*Irving*. "We left our parcels at *Smith, the bookseller's*." When the pronominal combination is broken up by the insertion, next to the leading noun, of the word limited by it, the sign should be appended to the leading noun, and not to the one in apposition with it; as, "for *Herodias's* sake, his brother *Philip's wife*."

While *Alfred's* name, the father of his age,

And the sixth *Edward's*, grace the historic page.—*Cooper*.

If the appositive noun, as in this last quotation, is accompanied by a qualifying phrase or clause of its own, the leading noun should have the sign of the possessive, whether the word limited by it be expressed or not. "I left the parcel at *Jay's*, the grocer on *Main street*." "We saw it at *Herron's* the new jeweller who opened on the bridge last week." This is the usual practice. Were it not for changing the qualifying phrase or clause that belongs to the appositive noun, from being restrictive to being merely additional, we might perhaps say, with propriety, "I left the parcel at *Jay the grocer's*, in *Main street*." "We saw it at *Herron the new jeweller's*, who opened on the bridge last week." But sometimes neither the meaning nor the nature of the restrictive phrase or clause will allow the use of this form.

If the appositive word is unmodified by any succeeding words, and the noun limited by the possessive is understood, the better form is the analogical, with the possessive sign at the end, and there only; as, "at my *cousin, the lawyer's*," not "at my *cousin's, the lawyer's*." It may be proper to affix the sign of the possessive to both the leading noun and the noun in apposition, when the latter is appended as a kind of afterthought; as, "I saw him last at his brother's,—the general's." "He died at his uncle's,—Judge Brown's." But to say, in general, with Latham, that "the proper expression is either *Smith's the bookseller's*, or *Smith the bookseller's*," as though there were no choice between the two; or, with the author of "Five Hundred Mistakes Corrected," that "the first form is preferable," is to say what is hardly true.

Such forms as the following should be avoided as exceedingly bungling and indicative of unnecessary carelessness on the part of the writer. "The Bunnagees have replied to Col. *Taylor's* (the Commissioner of Peshawar) proposals, that the British must leave the country," etc. "A Washington correspondent mentions Mr. *Chittenden's* (Register of the U. S. Treasury) Record, which he made as one of the secretaries of the Peace Congress." These might just as well have been avoided as not. Thus:—"The Bunnagees have replied, in answer to Col. Taylor, Commissioner of Peshawar's proposals, that," etc. Or, better, "The B., in answer to the proposals of Col. Taylor, Commissioner of P., have replied, that," etc.—"A correspond-

ent mentions the Record which Mr. C., Register of the U. S. Treasury, made as one," etc. Or, "mentions the Record of Mr. C., Register of the U. S. Treasury, made by him as one," etc.

d. When nouns are *connected by conjunctions and joint possession*, more or less, is implied. "*Mason and Dixon's Line.*" "After *two years and six months' absence.*"—*Irving.* "After *a day or two's absence.*"—*Chambers.* In the last example, the noun *days* being omitted, for euphony's sake, after *two*, the sign of the possessive naturally falls on *two*. We might say, "One or two *days' absence*;" in which case, the noun after *one* is omitted. The principle, in either case, is the same as if both nouns were expressed, as in this example, "After a *fortnight or three weeks' absence.*" This, it will be observed, corresponds also to the mode of forming compound ordinal adjectives, the last only taking the ordinal sign. "The *two and twentieth day*," not "the *second and twentieth day*,"—an expression which denotes two days; "the *one hundred and forty-fourth hymn*," not "the *one hundredth and forty-fourth.*"

3. The analysis of phrases like "a work of *Irving's*," "an anecdote of *Franklin's*," seems to have puzzled grammarians not a little. These are not, as they are sometimes called, "double possessives." They are simply possessives with the governing word understood. But that word is not, what grammarians generally make it, the plural of the noun immediately preceding the preposition, as, "a work of *Irving's works*." This is sheer nonsense; and Mr. Kerl admits as much, when he says, that "That head of *yours*," is not equivalent to "That head of *your heads*." The true word to be supplied is not an ordinary noun, but a participle, or participial noun, ending in *ing*, such as *having, possessing, making, discovering*. What the word is, may easily be gathered from the connection. It is omitted merely for euphony's sake, its presence not being necessary to conveying the sense. We will illustrate by filling out a few of these forms. A work of *Irving's [composing]*. A discovery of *Newton's [discovering or making]*. That head of *your [possessing]*. I have no refuge of my own [*providing or making*]. I have a picture of *Claude Lorraine's [painting or executing]*. This news of *Wilson's [announcing]*. An anecdote of *Franklin's [originating or relating]*.—This participial noun is the object, of course, of the preceding preposition *of*.

Several questions—concerning the syntax of some of these expressions and other matters connected with the possessive case—arise; but we must let them pass.

THE attempt to give mental discipline by studies which the mind does not desire, is as unwise as to attempt to give physical nourishment by food which the body does not desire. Discipline never comes by studies which are droned over.

JOHN BOYD.

CHAPTER XXIII.

ONE morning, soon after the adventure with his cousin at Barbridge, Boyd entered school, and as usual was passing the Professor without bowing. Beelen put himself in his way. A benignant smile, a look of congratulation was on the Professor's face. "I'm glad to hear you have found the will," said he. And then a shade of righteous sternness stole over his countenance, as he continued: "Your cousin came to me to get me to use my influence towards prevailing upon you to compromise in some way with him. I told him I could never consent to use my influence in such an unjust cause, and that my conscience would require me to tell you of his efforts still to keep you dispossessed of your property. He wished me to get you to let me see the paper you found at your uncle's house. I told him frankly to his face what I thought of him,—that he was an unscrupulous wire-puller, and that I could not lend my influence to him, and that if you should show me the paper it would be at your own suggestion. But at the same time I did not deny that a look at a paper on which so much of your happiness depended could not but be very pleasing to me." "You would like to look at the will?" "Yes." "You can assure me of your friendship?" "I have always felt friendly, brotherly to you. There is something about you that makes me feel so. I can hardly tell what it is—something that draws me to you, that makes me wish to talk with you—" "You never felt like working secretly against me for the sake of your own interests?" "No, indeed!" "You never did so work? You never whispered against me in the ears of influential people, for example?" "You have always spoken in a friendly way of me to others?" "If any have said anything to the contrary, they have spoken falsely. Only my enemies could tell such things of me." "You think I could trust you with my property?" "Your property!" "To steal a name is as bad as to steal a purse. Either attempt proclaims the thief. But waiving that just now, your friendly feelings are such that you would like to see me re-instated in the old house, once more lifted above the necessity of working for my living?"

"Yes,—yes, that's just the feeling I have for you." "You don't think that—as Mr. Winthrop says you would do to anyone who is in any manner likely to compete with you,—you would not go from this interview, for example, and lie about me?" "I don't see, I cannot divine why you should ask such things." "Well then, this being so, you may go to your friend Tilden and tell him that I have a will and have not a will; in either case you will tell the truth and tell a lie. Good morning."

His boys surrounded him in his room. "We hear you are going to leave us," they said,—*"That you're going to resign. Don't go. Don't leave us to old Beelen."* "This is the first I've heard, boys, of my purpose to resign," said John. "Who told you?" "Why, it's all over everywhere." "I have no purpose to resign," said John, whereupon the boys gathered closer around him and seized his hands and clung to him and shouted so that Mr. Royce, the vice-principal, came in to see what was the matter. He was a good fellow, with a blunt way of speaking. "Hear you've come into some property, Boyd; how's that?" "Where did you get your information?" "Mr. Beelen told me. But everybody is talking about it. Suppose you'll leave us now. Men of property don't teach for an occupation. Can't stand the wear and tear. How's that, boys? eh?" "Mr. Boyd shan't leave us. We won't let him." "Is it so?" said Mr. Royce to Boyd, speaking seriously. "He needn't count upon my leaving," said John. "He is trying to stir up a jubilee over the prospect of it, but he'll probably be disappointed. He regards me as his rival competitor, and is very eager to have me quit the field." "Well, I don't know anything about that, but don't forget us when you come into your possessions," and Mr. Royce turned away laughing, and left the room.

A note came to John from Miss Woodstock, asking him to call upon her as soon as possible, as she had much to say to him, and as soon as school was out he went to her house. "It is all around among the teachers," she said, "that you are about to leave, that you have come into possession of some property, and that you will resign at once. Don't resign—don't resign, Mr. Boyd, till you've got that Saturday school principalship. You'll get it, I know you will." "I have no intention of resigning," said John. "But I shan't get the principalship, for I'm no wire-puller, and he is. The place will be got by wire-pulling. How can I go about button-holing and lying?" "They'll put you in because you are worthy." "No. They'll put him in because he is indefatigable in bearing false witness." "The beast! The hypocrite!—" "The election comes off in a week," John remarked. "Mr. Winthrop and Mr. Wellesley—O, they are true men,—say they shall not only vote against him, but that they shall propose that enquiries be made into the popular charges against him. Possibly something may come of it."

On the evening of the election, Mr. Winthrop and Mr. Wellesley impeached the veracity of Professor Beelen, but the Professor was ready for them. He at once produced a large number of written certificates from leading men in the city testifying to his good character. These certificates would alone have carried his point, but a fact of great importance was announced by one of his advocates, a fact that added vastly to the dignity of his social character. It was announced that an institution of learning had just conferred upon the Professor the degree of LL.D. "Is

it not absurd," remarked this advocate, "to bring such charges against a Professor, and one on whom has been bestowed the title of LL.D.?" And indeed this was the decision of the majority of the committee, and Professor Beelen was elected; while Boyd's name, and the name of the other candidate was hardly considered.

When the Professor reached home he found awaiting him a sympathetic surprise party, come to present to him a superb Bible; and the evening passed off at the house right merrily. Next morning a report of the party was found in the newspaper, including a report of the election of Beelen to the principalship of the Saturday school, and of his having been the honored recipient of the degree of LL.D.

Thus was the Professor advancing on the tide of prosperity in spite of the opposition of his enemies, and in spite of the popular judgment against him. His success lifted high his head. He must proceed to rid himself of the official association of all who were not wise enough to hold their tongues. Notwithstanding John's manifest insignificance in the sight of the ruling powers, he was still in the Professor's way, for he was a bearer of true witness. He had ceased for the time to be Beelen's competitor, but he was Beelen's natural antagonist. One of the first things he did next morning was to express his disgust and contempt for the mode of granting degrees by institutions of learning. He was reading the paragraph in the *News Letter*, and he spoke out openly in the presence of some of his boys. "Sheer arrant charlatanry can get these degrees now-a-days," said he. "LL.D.—it means nothing; or if anything, it means charlatanry until it is proved to mean gennineness." Such a remark was very likely to be spread; and it was spread, for school-boys are consummate advertisers. Whether John had found the will or not, he seemed to be indifferent either to advancement in the sphere of teaching, or to continuance as a worker therein. The Professor watched him, followed him about, and stood and listened when he spoke; called the boys up to him to ask what John had said to them, and when they refused to tell, as they always did, he threatened them with punishment.

One day Beelen was about to carry a threat of this kind into execution. He sent into the cap-room a boy who had persistently refused to reveal what had passed in conversation between him and Boyd. Immediately the fact was reported to John. He was sitting in his room, and he at once arose and went out to the assembly room and stepped up to the Professor. "I am told," said he, "that you have sent one of my boys into the cap-room." Beelen stood and stared without speaking, and John continued. "I have concluded not to allow you to whip any of my boys." A spasmodic look of ferocity and threat convulsed Beelen's face, and he raised his hand as though to strike, as he was wont to do when dealing with a boy. But he was not dealing with a boy this time. Boyd scanned

him with a look of contempt. Beelen's hand fell, and John turned away and stepped to the cap-room door, and was about to enter, when Beelen called out to him and he turned. The Professor stepped forward. The eyes of the pupils were upon them. "I will enter a complaint against you of insubordination," Beelen panted. "That's what I wish, Doctor," was the reply. Beelen was seized with something like a frenzy of rage; but John's next remark cooled him. "Your complaint against me will be a popular complaint against yourself. But whether you complain of me or not, I intend that the people shall understand you. There is quite a method in my madness. I sacrifice my situation for humanity's sake.—Look you, do you intend to fight with me? That boy is coming out untouched." Beelen stood still, ghastly pale and glaring. "I intend to work your destruction if I can," said John. "This occurrence will be advertised in any case, whichever of us proves the stronger in it; and the ventilation of it will, I hope, put you out of your position." Beelen turned away and walked to his desk; and John opened the door and called to the boy to come out. Beelen looked at the pupils in their seats. "Hereafter," said he, panting, "let no one recognize the teacher of that room." Just then the boy came out, and a shout of applause went up from the pupils.

As Boyd expected, he received in a few days a letter suspending him from his position in the school. He was, however, called upon by several members of the Board, who expressed their sympathy, and assured him that they had done what they could to prevent his suspension. "It is what I expected, gentlemen," said John. "It is what I wished. This will perhaps produce what legislative action unbiased would never produce—his expulsion. Insubordination could not be overlooked. I displayed a spirit which rendered my stay there with him out of the question. But my dismissal will stir up a popular sentiment that may result in his expulsion."

Boyd's dismissal did produce a stir of indignation and a demand for Beelen's expulsion. But the Professor was equal to the occasion. He moved about indefatigably day and evening among the ruling powers. His first object was to prevent an investigation into the affairs of the school. Prominent men became his advocates, defending him and censuring Boyd with all the dignity that their weight and force of character could furnish. The investigation did not take place. Beelen breathed freer. He now proceeded to modify the popular impression against him. He attended one prayer meeting after another, praying at each with unction; and he kept a memorandum of the progress of his attendance, so as to know where to go at any time. And with regard to the Sunday-schools he did the same, speaking now before one and again before another. And he made himself conspicuous at temperance meetings, and managed to get chosen to committees, and he succeeded in securing invitations to deliver lectures, until

finally the excitement died away, and the popular feeling settled to a cool dislike and distrust.

Meanwhile Boyd had returned to Deerslaugh. He reached the village one afternoon. Stepping from the cars he stood leaning upon a stile at the edge of a field, and looked across a small valley towards the old house. It seemed to invite him to it as its rightful owner, and he approached it and presently opened the gate and walked up the pathway to the door. He flung his valise upon the grass, and seated himself upon the stone step. All was quiet for a while, and then he heard voices, and soon Tilden Boyd and Prage came around the corner of the house. Both started back with a scowl. "I've come to look at the old place," said Boyd. "It has a pleasant look. Will you give me a cup of water? I do not forget the old well." Tilden pushed up a window and called to his mother to bring a dipper of water. "Who?" Boyd heard her ask in a low tone, when she handed out the water. Then she peered out with a look that said, "What's he here for?" "How do you do?" said John, accosting her. "How do you do?" "This is a fine place. It is worth any money you might have given for it. It took all—all of Uncle Welford's money, did it, to buy it? Well, I'm glad of that. I shall have it back clear, shan't I?—This water is warm." Tilden came grovelling towards him. "Did you—tell me, did you find the will?" he asked. "You saw me take the paper," said John. "You know we had a scuffle over it." "Was it the will?" "The will! You are certain then there was a will?" "Was it the will you found?" "There's the paper; you may have it." John handed to Tilden a paper which the latter clutched and tore open, and then burst into a loud laugh. Boyd took up his valise and walked away.

WHAT A GOOD NEWSPAPER MAY DO.—Show us an intelligent family of boys and girls, and we will show you a family where newspapers and periodicals are plenty. Nobody who has been without these silent private tutors can know their educating powers for good or evil. Have you ever thought of the innumerable topics of discussion which they suggest at the breakfast table; the important public measures with which, thus early, our children become acquainted; great philanthropic questions of the day, to which unconsciously their attention is awakened, and the general spirit of intelligence which is evoked by these quiet visitors? Anything that makes home pleasant, cheerful and chatty, thins the haunts of vice, and the thousand and one avenues of temptation, should certainly be regarded, when we consider its influence on the minds of the young, as a great moral and social light.—*Emerson.*

THE MONTHLY.—NOVEMBER.

THE GENESIS OF SCHOOL BOOKS.

A "FRIEND of Popular Education" (who may, or may not know anything of teaching), hits upon what he fancies to be a "new idea" in regard to the proper method of instruction in some elementary study. He thinks it is a capital idea: so do his friends—who probably know as little about the matter as himself—and nothing will do but he must "develop" his idea in a text-book. A little common sense or experience might show him that the idea is not good: or, if good, that it is not new; or if both new and good, that possibly there are others that are vastly better. But he has never heard of a book "written on that plan." So he tries his hand, and if he can secure a publisher, the chances are that book-making becomes his business, and in time he is known as an author of—that curse of American schools—a "series." Thereupon arises a war of publishers, and as the controversy waxes hot, teachers come to think that the all-important thing is to get the *best* series. Success with that is certain; with series No. 2, doubtful; with any other text-books, quite impossible. The more noise and bluster made by rival agents, the less likely the mass of teachers are to see that text-books are but of secondary importance anyway: that the success of a competent teacher is, and of every teacher should be, independent of the text-books put into his hands. Not that there is no choice between a good text-book and a bad one, but simply this, that nine out of ten, take them as the run, are bad; and that the present excessive dependence of teachers upon them, instead of upon their individual knowledge of the subjects to be taught, does not tend to improve either text-books, teachers, or pupils.

The author of the "Daily Public School" describes therein a very common origin of series, and the resulting struggle for existence. The latter is often quite as severe as any called for by Darwin's theory; yet a new series has this advantage over a new species, its prolonged existence depends less upon its own inherent worth and vitality, than upon the superior energy of its progenitor and his heavier credit balance at the bank.

A schoolmaster (he says) is tired of drudgery, and makes up his mind

to become a publisher. It is as easy a matter to make a book as to make a shoe. It is in itself a mere mechanical operation. We start with a title—"The Child's Help in his first efforts to Learn." By James Smith, A. M. That sounds well for a foundation. Then comes the alphabet, A, B, C, ab, abs, words of one syllable, readings in one syllable, then in two, three, etc., for 50, 75 or 100 pages, all adorned with a large number of pictures according to the author's taste, and we thus have "Smith's Child's Help."

Mr. Smith is the Doctor Smith, or Professor (as some call him), who taught the town school for eleven winters. He goes to the School Committee, and to Judge Jones, and to Rev. Mr. Smith (the same name, but no relation), favors them each with a copy of his new book, and obtains their signatures to a certificate as follows:

"We take great pleasure in certifying that Mr. Smith, the author of 'The Child's Help,' has been long known to us as a very successful teacher, and we have no doubt that the book he has prepared will be found to be what its title imports, a real 'Child's Help.'"

The book is approved by the committee, and introduced into the schools of that town to begin with. A flaming advertisement comes out, a copy is sent to the printer of the county paper, and Doctor Dart (who is a friend of Dr. Smith, and married Dr. Smith's wife's cousin, and is a friend of the editor of the county paper also), writes a puff, and by and by the "Child's Help" is called for quite extensively beyond the town. Dr. Smith is so much encouraged that he proceeds in like manner and compiles a series of books on the same plan, and then introduces to the favorable regard of the public, "Smith's Series of Elementary School Books." He now goes to some extensive city publisher, shows the evidence of his success, and the reputation he has acquired by his first effort, and proposes to him to get out the series, while he will go abroad with certificates and advertisements, etc., and open the way for their general circulation. Soon "POPULAR SCHOOL BOOKS—*Smith's Elementary Series*," meets the eye, in some conspicuous part of whatever newspaper we open, far and near, and unless the bookseller fails or quarrels with the author, or the golden egg is in some other way broken, "Smith's Elementary Series" is for years the source of regular and abundant profit to all concerned.

Thus it comes to pass (the writer continues) that parents and guardians, or the public treasury, or both, are obliged to shoulder the burden of all experiments of teachers, publishers, and booksellers, and hence the vast accumulation of discarded school books, stored away on upper shelves or in dark closets;—so vast that it may be safe to say that if the money that has been expended for them were refunded, it would amply support the public schools of the largest State in the Union for a quarter of a century to come.

CORRESPONDENCE.

EFFECTS OF EXCESSIVE STORY READING.

MR. EDITOR—I have come to the conclusion that there must exist a wonderful propensity in human nature to “teach and to preach,” or, surely, in view of the fearfully disproportionate results of their efforts, teachers and preachers, and writers, and all of the knowledge and advice-imparting ilk, would have given up in despair ages ago.

The subject of this letter may illustrate the above remark. I have preached upon the baneful effects of fiction on the minds of young people to all the youngsters in a large family connection for the last ten years, without being able to flatter myself that a single boy or girl among them all, has read one novel or story-book the less:—and yet, here I am to-day, considerably disheartened, it is true, but with courage enough left for one effort more. Perhaps I owe my hardihood in the present instance, to the comfortable suggestion that, should this letter find its way into the *EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY*, I at least shall not *know* that its teachings have been without effect, but may please myself with the belief, that they have done good, with no one to disprove my faith.

And now for the subject:—the essentially weakening and deteriorating influence of story-book and novel reading upon the juvenile mind.

My convictions on this subject result from the close observation of nearly thirty years’ intercourse with young people. In those years I have known many a mind, bright, healthful and vigorous in its natural organization, reduced to a condition of weakness, sentimentality and mere namby-pambyism, by feeding upon fiction as its chief aliment.

Most children of the age of eight or nine years are ready to be interested by the striking facts of natural history. I take the word in its broadest meaning, including all that relates to the wonders and glories of the visible world in which we live. Instead of gratifying and cultivating such tastes, which would become a life-long source of intellectual wealth and pleasure, their young minds are fed with fiction, which is *intended*, I know, to improve the heart, but which, (a long and close observation has convinced me,) only pleases the imagination without producing the least permanent moral effect. Story-books do *not* strengthen the character; they dilute the mind and blunt the moral sense.

Let me give, in illustration of this assertion, one of many instances which have come under my knowledge. A few months since a pupil of mine, possessing much more than the average amount of conscientiousness found in school girls, became interested in a beautifully written story of the *heroism of self-denial*. Knowing the nature of the reader, I am sure, that at every page, she was resolving to “go and do likewise.” But did the book give her the moral strength for the carrying out of such a purpose? No, for at that very hour, her school lessons were all unprepared, and her conscience told her that she ought to lay down the fascinating book and study them, but she put off the practice of the very virtue which the book inculcated for a more convenient season,—and we all know what *that* means.

Many persons to whom I have spoken of the evil effect of story-book

reading upon the young, reply—"Oh, but you surely don't object to such and such and such an author's writings—their moral tone is so high and pure, they must have a good effect upon any child." To which I can only say that the objection seems to me to have no more weight than if, were one inveighing against an indiscriminate diet of confectionery, the answer should be given: "Oh! it is such *good* candy, so-and-so's best!"

The evil effect of this kind of reading is more apparent, perhaps, among women than among men. There is much in a boy's school-life, or in the circumstances of his after career, to give practical strength and tone to character, and thus neutralize or correct the baneful effects which might otherwise arise from his juvenile reading. But the usual course of a woman's life affords no such counteracting and corrective influences.

But this letter is growing to an inordinate length. With one more word I will bring it to an end. I would not condemn all novels that ever were written—only those that are *merely* fictions, and valuable solely for their supposed moral effect. You might have been amused, not long since, to have met the writer of this, with a copy of Bulwer's "Last Days of Pompeii" in her hand, deliberately taking it to read the passages descriptive of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius to some pupils in Physical Geography. This author's "Harold the Last of the Saxon Kings," I consider invaluable as a graphic historical picture of the period to which it relates. And so of many works of fiction of a descriptive character. If read with discrimination and in illustration of the facts of history or science, they may subserve a useful purpose.

But, for the other class, Nero could not more savagely wish for the convenience of one neck to the Roman people, than I do that this injurious body of fiction could be all concentrated in a single volume, and that
not fire-proof.

A. B. B.

WEST POINT, N. Y.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW JERSEY.—The State Normal school opens with a larger number than have ever before been in attendance at one time. There are 136 pupils in the Normal department, 144 in the boys' department of the Model School, and 193 in the young ladies' department, total 473. The Farnum Preparatory school at Beverly, begins with 181, about fifty per cent. above its usual number at this season of the year. The prospects are that the Beverly school this term will reach 200, and the Trenton school go considerably above 500. **DELAWARE.**—The colored people of this State being denied participation in the benefits of the public school system, have established fourteen schools, through the aid of various associations, supported in part by the contributions of the parents of the pupils. The total number enrolled is about 750; during the autumn and winter months this will probably be increased from 1,000 to 1,200. The same eagerness to learn which has been exhibited throughout the South has been displayed in Delaware, accompanied in some districts with even greater opposition from a portion of the white population. **TENNES-**

SEE.—A number of gentlemen in East Tennessee have undertaken to establish an institution to afford a free normal education to the sons of all Tennesseans who perished in the Union cause. They have purchased a school property for the purpose at Athens, midway between Knoxville and Chattanooga, valued at \$25,000, and capable of accommodating three hundred pupils. MICHIGAN.—The Superintendent reports the number of children in the State, between five and twenty years of age, at 321,311; the number attending school, 246,957; the number of teachers, 9,182—men, 1687, women, 7495; average wages paid the former, \$43.60 per month, the latter, \$18.44. The number of volumes in district libraries, 79,594; value of school houses and sites, \$2,854,991; the aggregate of school funds, \$2,780,292.73. The number of the schools and school-houses in the State is not given. New school buildings of the better class are rapidly multiplying—"not from any spirit of rivalry or false ambition, but because experience has shown them to be the cheapest in the end." Of the 4,625 districts reported, 155 had graded schools. The number of children reported as attending school, was greater by 18,328, than was reported the year before; but the Superintendent thinks that the actual increase was very much less—"many directors evidently taking the totals of the summer and winter schools, thus counting twice all who attended both terms." The increase of children, of school age, in the State was over 22,000. The number under five and over twenty registered in the schools during the year was 7,202, very few of whom, we trust, were under five: children of that age had better be at play. The average of teachers' wages shows a slight increase. The Superintendent devotes considerable space to the claims of Union schools, believing them to be much more efficient and profitable than small ungraded schools. They command a higher grade of teachers, retain them longer, and afford a much more extended course of instruction. The lack of a thorough and competent supervision of the schools of the State, is forcibly presented. "The present system of examining teachers, so far as the securing of competent instructors by it is concerned, is a complete failure, and the system of school supervision, so far as the improvement of the schools by it is concerned, is equally a failure." Certain imperfections in the school laws are criticised with like frankness and vigor. The condition of the district libraries is shown to be quite as deplorable as in some other States. They are "rapidly going to annihilation.... for the want of some legal provision for adequate funds for their support." Since the withdrawal of the annual appropriation that used to be made for their support, they have been entirely dependent upon the funds arising from fines. In the cities and large towns the fund that thus accrues to the libraries is sufficient to keep them in a flourishing condition; but in the country districts it amounts to the merest trifle, and even this is in most cases misapplied. The State University is in a most flourishing condition. From present indications the number of students in all its departments, for the current College year, will considerably exceed the twelve hundred and more in attendance last year. CALIFORNIA.—Seventeen years ago the State Constitution promised that a State University should be established. Congress gave it a liberal donation of land, but nothing further has been done in the matter. The College of California, near San Francisco, is named as a good foundation for the proposed University. There is great need of a first class College on the Pacific coast.

GREAT BRITAIN.—Considerable discussion has been called forth by a proposition to throw all educational endowments of England, Scotland, and Ireland, into one common State fund. In the opinion of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, so extensive and liberal a scheme for redistributing and economizing the educational income of the country would necessitate the establishment of "free trade" in education, the abolition of tests, the cheapening of academical expenses, and the enforcement of reciprocity between all the Universities of the kingdom. At present the benefits, for example, which Oxford bestows, are fenced round with obstacles of various kinds. No dissenter can claim her favors; no one can obtain anything from her who has not entered the University through a College, who has not undergone extravagant and increasing expenses, and who has not finally resided within her precincts. Under the proposed scheme, a man whom narrow means had compelled to be content with the education given, for instance, at St. Andrews, or at Belfast, would be permitted to compete at Oxford for a fellowship, and to hold it if he showed himself able to win it. This, perhaps, more than any other change, would put University education, of a high class, within the reach of the poorest. Scotland has its own wasted revenues and educational abuses, and Ireland has such gorged and comparatively useless institutions as Trinity College, Dublin, and the Royal Schools. Moreover, in many cases individuals and corporations are paid not merely for doing something badly, but for doing nothing at all. Neither the Provost, nor the Fellows of Eton, have any duties to perform. Yet the former receives the income of a chief justice, or a bishop, or an Irish College, and the latter are as well off as deans, or the head masters of large schools. Inquiry into the entire question of public education in the three kingdoms must soon come; and, after inquiry, reform cannot be long delayed.

SWITZERLAND has about 3,500,000 inhabitants, and 345 scientific and literary publications; while France, with ten times the population, has but about five hundred journals and magazines. The solution of this is in the fact that in Switzerland the people all receive some education, and consequently can read, and take the papers; in France less than one-half can read.

AUSTRIA.—An association of teachers at Vienna, representing nearly all parts of the Empire, has adopted a resolution, almost unanimously, advocating the separation of the public schools from the Church.

INDIA.—The Methodists have founded a mission college in Lucknow, with an endowment of 25,000 rupees. The English government offers to double the annual income of the institution. Several donations for founding scholarships have been made, and an appeal is published by the Trustees asking aid in the enlargement of this first Methodist college in India.

CHINA.—A University, fashioned after the best occidental seats of learning, has been established in Peking. The enterprise was accomplished in the face of great opposition on the part of the Celestial Mandarins; and but for the countenance and liberal support of the Emperor, and his Foreign Board of Councillors, it must have failed. Five Professors have been appointed, and money has been appropriated for an astronomical observatory and a scientific library. Learning in China has taken a new and practical start, which cannot fail to make a decided change in the aspect of that ancient Empire.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

DR. LAMBERT is a funny man. He has written a funny book.¹ And, what makes it all the funnier, he is in sober earnest all the time, and wholly unconscious of the figure he is cutting.

In the "Preface,"—which, by the way, is really a *postscript*, and thus affords a good illustration of the doctor's logical method and use of words—he tells us that his book "exhibits a new and improved method of teaching Physiology." That the method is new, we are happy to believe. That it is, or has been, improved, courtesy compels us to believe, also; though we cannot but wonder what its condition must have been before the implied improvement was effected. Surely no one seeing its present condition would ever suspect its having undergone any such operation.

"In every other branch," preface again, "there has been progress; why should Physiology be an exception to the spirit of the age!" Admitting that it is an exception to the aforesaid spirit—though we cannot see how it can be, we call upon Draper and Dalton, and the "faculty" in general, to give the reason for it if they can. "Why may it not be modernized—may we not say, Americanized?" Possibly the Professors above mentioned, in timid subservience to European opinion, may think it has been "modernized," and doubtless would protest that it had best not be "Americanized," but, without waiting for their verdict, the intrepid Dr. Lambert has 'gone and done it.' "It is now," he says, "out of the 'rut.'" What "rut" he does not tell us, but as ruts are unpleasant things to be in, we heartily rejoice at its happy deliverance. "The old or European system," more preface, "was, and is, good [a generous concession!]; the new or American [or *Lambertian*] system is better." Let modest merit be exalted. Give honor to Dr. Lambert, and let loose the American eagle. Consider the vast importance of Physiology, especially when dilated to the capacity of children of eight or ten years; consider the grievous imperfections of the old system of teaching it (whatever that may have been), the transcendent merits of the new (which is Dr. Lambert's); and then realize, if possible, the world's indebtedness to our learned author. But the doctor is not vain; he does not brag—much. "None," he says, "should adopt it [his 'new and improved method,'] because it is new, or distrust it because it is not transatlantic. *Every thing useful was at one time new!*" And, we imagine the Dr. mentally continuing, *some things useful have been of cisatlantic origin; in witness whereof, see my new Primary, Systematic Human Physiology, Anatomy and Hygiene!*

The first thing that strikes one's attention in this "new method," is that every paragraph begins with a yell, as a printer would say. That is, the first word or clause of each paragraph is printed in capitals. This, however, is not a rhetorical device, but a part of the "method of questions," which, the doctor assures us, "is also new." Thus par. i. chap. 1. p. i. reads, "IF A FATHER SHOULD MAKE A BIRTHDAY PRESENT OF A WATCH TO A YOUNG SON OR DAUGHTER (I hope every boy and girl will some day receive

(1) PRIMARY, SYSTEMATIC PHYSIOLOGY, ANATOMY AND HYGIENE. By T. S. LAMBERT, M. D. New York: William Wood & Co. Price 75c.

this pleasing and useful present), ought he not at once to teach the child how to wind it, set the hands, etc.?" Without stopping to consider the doctor's happy bid for the good will of the boys and girls, "etc.," we look to the bottom of the page, where we find this question: "1.—what ought he to do?" A note explains that the dash in the question "signifies that the capitalized words of the corresponding paragraph are to be used in the place of the dash. Example: 1—what ought he to do? should be read, *IF A FATHER SHOULD MAKE A BIRTH DAY PRESENT OF A WATCH TO A YOUNG SON OR DAUGHTER, what ought he to do?*" Again: "3. What—? should be read, *WHAT HAS EVERY CHILD RECEIVED?*" the corresponding paragraph being "EVERY CHILD HAS RECEIVED a birth-day present of much more value than a watch; I mean his own body." "The position of the verb in this case," the doctor kindly adds, "is changed a little. Sometimes a word must be thus changed, or one added, or one dropped. The object of the invention," he continues, evidently meaning by *invention* his new method of questions, "was to question the paragraphs thoroughly, and yet occupy but little space. The method effects the object admirably;" for which (in humble admiration) we tender the doctor our congratulations, though we scarcely understand what he wants to "question the paragraphs" for. Ordinary teachers would think it much more important to question the pupils. However, we would not be understood to insinuate a doubt concerning the questionableness of any of the doctor's paragraphs. We admit that fully, and trust that the doctor will thank us for pointing out, as we shall do hereafter, a few of the more notable instances. The saving of space effected by this "invention" is certainly great; for if the questions were written out in full, it would require for them alone, a book nearly or quite as large as the present volume. Still we are not quite sure that it would not have been a greater saving to have left them out altogether—being a little doubtful whether teachers or pupils will be greatly benefited by the five or six hundred repetitions of "What—?" "—what?" "What does—?" "—does what?" "How—?" "Why—?" "—?" and the like, which keep up a running fire at the text throughout the entire book. We fear, too, that this resuscitation of the old-time pedagogic method of answering questions in the asking of them, will not find many friends among intelligent teachers. The children may like it however—"It's so nice and easy!"

Some notion of the doctor's style may have been gained from the sentences already quoted. A few special citations (omitting the capitals) may show more fully its glorious uncertainty. We quote: "Indeed one finger of a child's hand is more curious than both hands of a watch *with all their moving wheels.*" (par. 6, p. 2.) "Every one who has not before done it should place *his ear on the heart* and listen to its sounds." (10, p. 3.) "Physiology is the name of that branch *that treats upon* the uses of the parts of living things." (79, p. 24.) "The science and art of cooking, and indeed, all of housekeeping—*such as* cleanliness, ventilation, clothing, etc., *that pertains* to preserving and promoting, or restoring health—should be held, etc." (122, p. 33.) "All parts of the body exist only because necessary *on account* of the mind; *therefore*, the study of the Blood making mechanism is important *only because* Blood is necessary to keep in good condition those parts of the body that the mind uses." (164, p. 45.) "The Blood is *constantly composed* of several different kinds of *impurities*

gathered in its course." (223, p. 62.) These citations might be extended to comprise a good part of the book, it being only by rare good fortune that the doctor succeeds in writing a straightforward English sentence. One of the most amusing peculiarities of his style will be noticed in the second quotation from the last. It arises from an excessive overworking of *for, hence, because, therefore*, and words of like significance. This by the way, seems ever to be a characteristic of the would-be scientific school-book maker. It is not, to his mind, at all essential that the clauses connected by these words should have any logical connection. In fact, the less connection the better; the highest reach of his reasoning faculty culminating in deductions like—*Man is an immortal being, therefore he has ten toes, and hence should keep his head cool and eat tripe*. Another noticeable result of this sort of argumentative style, is that it rarely says bluntly that a thing *is*. It almost always follows as an *effect*; it is necessary, it must be, or it should be. "Thus, the Head has *need of*, and is supplied with a Neck, Trunk, and lower limbs." (111, p. 31.) "The mind *requires* to ask questions and to answer them, for which purpose it *must have* the means of talking. For talking there *will be required* a bellows to take in and blow out air," etc. (113, p. 31). "Blood may easily both cool and warm the body, for it *must be* largely composed of water; and this by *oozing on to any surface and evaporating will cool it*; hence we perspire when too warm." (215, p. 60.) The accuracy of a good part of the book is about on a par with the foregoing "oozing-on-to" process of perspiration. In fact the very first physiological statement the doctor makes (namely, that the heart "*drives* the blood through all parts") is an error, as every school boy ought by this time to know. Evidently the doctor must have learned his physiology when he was a boy, or at least, out of the text books of the past generation. For the greater part of the theories which he teaches—for example, that heat is provided for by respiration and the like—were exploded years ago.

We have marked so many passages in the book, that we hardly know which to notice or where to stop. It would be impossible, with the time and space at command, to speak of the tenth part of the points worthy of attention. To review merely the comical contrast of style—the pompous pedantry of some parts, the silly puerility of others, to say nothing of the constant helpless struggle for ideas, would extend our notice far beyond the limits allowed. But we must not neglect to call attention to the numerous "synoptical" expressions and the neat little sums in addition and subtraction which arise therefrom. For example: (73, p. 24) "Therefore, [why "therefore," we have not been able to discover] the first proposition in physiology is, that every person has a mind and [a] body; or, in brief,

$$\text{Man} = \text{mind} + \text{Body: or } \text{Man} = \begin{cases} \text{Mind} \\ \text{Body.} \end{cases}$$

"The last expression," the doctor kindly informs us, "might be read: Every man (meaning all mankind, women and children included) equals a mind and body added." We hardly know which to admire most, the mathematical, the logical, the grammatical, or the physiological beauty and accuracy of this proposition. Taken in any way, it is a gem.

"An exercise in addition and subtraction" we read in the next

paragraph, "may be made by writing one word above the other, as below :

	Mind		Man	Man
Addition	Body	Subtraction	Mind	Body
	Man		Body	Mind

Is n't it wonderful, and so instructive !

We have said that the doctor's funniness is never intentional ; nevertheless we must admit that he really has tried to perpetrate one joke. It occurs in his third chapter, "Body analyzed into six members," where he discusses the subject after this fashion : "If we look at the body as it is standing before us, our minds naturally, and without effort, divide it into parts called members. "The central member, sometimes wrongly called the body, is the Trunk on which, not in which we put our clothes."

The italics indicate a deliberate attempt at facetiousness. It is needless to say, however, that it does not in the least disprove our statement. But the doctor retrieves himself in the very next paragraph, which with charming *naivete* opens up his customary comic vein. "The Trunk," he says, "has limbs growing to it, but not exactly as limbs grow out from the trunk of a tree. The four limbs being alike in some respects, are called by the common name limbs ; but as two differ from the other two, they are called upper and lower limbs ; and one of each being on each side, it is also called right or left. This is classification." There is no need of writing "this is a joke" to such a palpable hit as the last.

There is hardly a teacher in the State who does not know how grievously the doctor is troubled, while attending Teachers' Institutes, to find a sufficient quantity of "brain-sustaining food" to meet the demands of such occasions. "Precisely what varieties of food," he says, page 156, "will include all those best adapted to the wants of the brain, cannot be told at present, but sometime will be known. *The idea is a very important one, and its practical bearing should be worked out as soon as possible.*" The italics are the doctor's. Precisely what the "idea" is, the "practical bearing" of which is so emphatically desired, is not clear. But if it has any reference to a better food-supply for the brain, we fully admit the urgency of the demand—at least in the doctor's case ; and sincerely hope that its "bearings" *will be* fully "worked out" before he essays to write another book. He must have been on half rations while making this one.

Fitch's well known "Outlines of Physical Geography," comes to us in a new dress and a new form. The old maps have been superseded by larger ones, map questions have been added, and also a special chapter on the Geography of the United States. It is claimed for the work that it has been "revised, with notes, additions, and amendments." We would suggest that another revision *with corrections* be made. The work needs it badly. Mr. Fitch was not over accurate at first, and the Science of Geography has made some slight advances since he wrote. Very many of his statements, which might have been supported by good names when he wrote, have since been modified or disproved. In getting out this edition

(a) J. H. COLTON'S OUTLINES OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. By GEO. W. FITCH. Revised and Enlarged. New York : Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co.

these things should have been attended to. Every statement ought to have been carefully examined by a competent scholar, or tested by comparison with the latest authorities. Neither has been done, and so the book stands full of errors and wholly unworthy of confidence. The maps are, for the most part, failures. An attempt has been made to make each do the work of three or four. The consequence is such a confusion of lines and names that nothing is distinctly visible.

THE new Primary Geography,³ prepared by Dr. Cruikshank, follows very closely the old-fashioned plan of presenting the subject. Yet its frequent suggestions of modern methods of teaching, if intelligently carried out, will make it in some respects less objectionable as a text-book than many of the works of the class in use. While not so simple and entertaining as Guyot's, it contains more facts (for those who like them), and is certainly much better written in point of style—the author's editorial experience insuring the absence of all the twaddle, and of most of the trash, so commonly found in school Geographies. Of its kind, the book is one of the best: but we do not think very highly of the kind. It deals too much in unimportant and unrememberable facts. "Its value," as the author frankly remarks, "will consist rather in what it suggests than in anything new or unusual in the matter it contains," and he might have added, "or in the manner of presenting the matter."

"1. ARITHMETIC is the science or art of computing numbers. 2. The theory of Arithmetic treats of the properties and relations of numbers. 3. The practice of Arithmetic shows the application of numbers to business, the mechanic, arts, &c."

The foregoing statements—we cannot call them *definitions*, although they are intended for such, nor yet *sentences*, for they do not "make sense"—are copied from Nelson's Common School Arithmetic.⁴ They fairly represent the author's style of writing. He rarely hits nearer than guessing distance of the idea he is trying to express. The book contains many excellent practical exercises, and much information not usually found in Arithmetics. But it is not at all suited for the common school.

No. 1217 of Littell's *Living Age*, contains a twenty-three page article from the *Edinburgh Review*, on the "Early Administration of George III.;" Part VII. (27 p.p.) "Tenants of Malory," a serial from the *Dublin University Magazine*; a short article from the *Saturday Review* on a "Mémorial of Prof. Aytoun," and another on the "Death of Prof. Faraday." A little poetry, and a few odds and ends make up the remaining two or three pages. Notwithstanding the little variety afforded, the *Living Age* more than holds its own—competition rather extending its circulation than decreasing it. Published every Saturday, by Littell & Gay, Boston. Price per year, \$8.

SINCE his return from the Pacific Coast, Prof. A. Wood has prepared a number of lectures on "The Natural Wonders of our Pacific States"—their mines and mountains, their Yo Semite, and their forest trees. These lectures are popular in character, instructive, full of lively interest, and well suited for delivery before schools and literary societies.

(3) A PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY. By JAMES CRUIKSHANK, LL. D. New York: Wm. Wood & Co.

(4) COMMON SCHOOL ARITHMETIC. By RICHARD NELSON. Cincinnati: R. W. Carrol & Co.

INVENTIONS FOR SCHOOLS.

SCHOOL MEDALS.

AS the man is but a child of larger growth, so the child is a man of lesser growth; and whatever proves of salutary influence in the government of men, is pretty certain to exert a like influence upon children. The soldier risks his life in the service of his country. He is animated by the purest patriotism, and would scorn the imputation of hireling. Yet he rejoices to receive a paltry ribbon and jewel to wear in his buttonhole; and his comrades emulate his daring, in hope of similar recognition.



In like manner, suitable tokens of the teacher's approbation, justly awarded, exert a powerful influence for good upon a school. They are not, as some objectors say, *rewards* for excellence of conduct and scholarship—thus estimating merit by the low standard of money value—but *evidences* of excellence, certificates of the pupil's merit and honorable rank in class. And so long as a desire for the approbation of parents and friends shall remain one of the most natural and powerful incentives to exertion on the part of the young, so long will the judicious awarding of certificates of merit prove of salutary influence in the school. In compliance with the expressed desire of many teachers for an appropriate medal for this purpose, which should be at once neat and inexpensive, the publishers of the MONTHLY have prepared one, the design of which is shown by the cuts above. These medals are made of white metal, which does not readily tarnish, and are of appropriate design and fine finish. They are put up in boxes containing half a dozen each. Price, \$3 per dozen. Where the printed "Aids to School Discipline" are used, these medals afford excellent prizes for those pupils who obtain the largest number of certificates. Prizes of greater intrinsic value, when desired, may be struck from the same dies in silver or gold.

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3. It teaches how to *parse every kind of word*, in its rare as well as in its usual relations.

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7. It will be found to contain a great variety of models for parsing and analysis.

8. So far as a text-book can do it, the pupil is made to *use* and *apply* his knowledge as fast as he acquires it, by means of exercises which compel him to *think*, *write*, and *invent* for himself.

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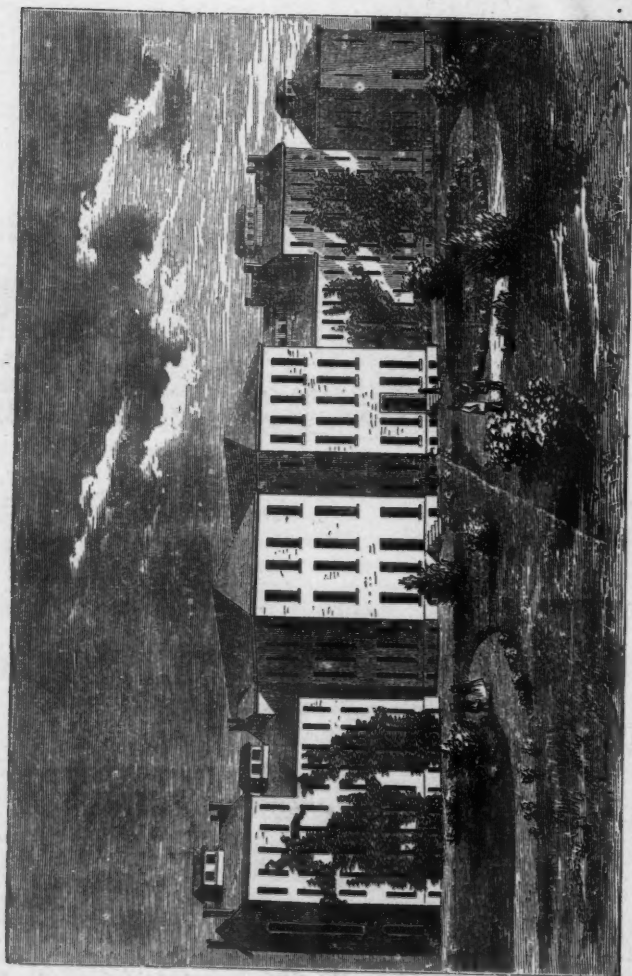
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